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ABSTRACT

The chapter outlines an approach to teaching behavior-disordered students to follow the largely unwritten rules of being "good students." A section on research and theory addresses attributions and perceptions, dependence, study skills, and social skills training. Assessment philosophy and procedures are reviewed, including the collection of time-on-task, product or assignment analysis, and match/mismatch checklists. Interventions through which the teacher can promote good-student behaviors (including selecting materials that promote independence, providing direct instruction in aspects of independent study, and clarifying expectations and realities) are noted, along with interventions under the control of the student (focusing on such aspects as aids to memory, time management, and self-monitoring and self-reinforcement). (CL)

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Teaching Independent Student Behaviors to Behaviorally Disordered Youth

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Introduction

Students labelled as behaviorally disordered are rarely characterized as "good students" by school personnel, their parents or guardians, much less by themselves. Ironically, it isn't often that the school program deals directly with teaching *any* students the behaviors required of good students. In most cases, the consequences of this omission are negligible, because even young school children learn inductively to play the school game, or they are coached by family members or friends. More importantly, they implicitly or explicitly recognize the fact that there is a school game to be learned and played. For students labelled as behaviorally disordered, the inability or the disinclination to deal effectively with the rules, reasons and acceptable behaviors associated with playing the school game is educationally fatal. It is likely to be the primary factor in their assignment to a special program, or perhaps even for their removal from school.

The historical link between learning problems and behavior disorders is both long and strong. Bower (1960) suggested that, "an inability to learn (which cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory or health factors) is perhaps the single most significant characteristic of emotionally handicapped children in school" (p. 9). Bower's emphasis on academic achievement in school screening for emotionally handicapped students found earlier support from the public school studies by Olson (1930) and Rogers (1942), in which a link between low achievement and "adjustment problems" was firmly established. Today, the perceived link is so strong that regulations for some state programs in behavior disorders require demonstration of academic deficiencies as part of identification for school services (a situation apparently not intended by Bower). In other cases, students are eligible for services if they are seriously disruptive of their classmates' learning environment. In any case, the emphasis is placed on the school as a place for learning, and on the disruption of school learning as a primary indicator of behavioral disabilities.

Whether in a direct or an indirect instructional role, teachers of behaviorally disordered youth have found that in spite of their efforts, the academic status of their students is often marginal at best. Further, being a "good student" requires more than academic competence. Even students who improve academically do not always disappear into the mainstream. What has been true for the mentally retarded is even truer for the behaviorally disordered student. School is a social system in which consideration must be given to values, attitudes, judgments, uniqueness of personalities, feelings and perceptions, no matter how behaviorally they are defined.

Skills in learning to play the game in the school social system are needed from preschool through graduate school. Cobb (1970) defined them as "survival" skills for first graders in an academic setting (*Figure 1*). In discussing the Carnegie study on high school reformation, O'Keefe refers to the silent compact between teachers and students, so that, "The teacher will say, 'This is tough for both of us, kid; let's strike a deal. You keep order, and I'll let you alone.'" (p. 745). College bookstores abound with advice from sources such as *The Other Way to Better Grades* (Karlins, 1981), about the nonacademic factors that influence school success. In each case, the "rules" are rarely stated, but must be learned by good students.

Teachers have long dealt with survival matters as a part of their underground curriculum, or "counseling," simply because they had to. Often more time is spent with behaviors that are not on the individualized education program (IEP) than with those that are. There is good reason to believe that these efforts are more likely the heart of the program, and should become legitimized.

The interventions proposed in this chapter are designed to teach students to behave in a constructively independent fashion in school, i.e., to learn to be—or to act as if they are—"good students." The behaviors involved are incompatible with disruption, withdrawal and academic failure. There are three basic goals of such interventions. First, they should increase the student's self-perception as a learner and promote the observers' expressed perceptions that the student engages in the work habits associated with good students. The second purpose is to intervene in the school program and at home so that as many experiences as possible are arranged to elicit or reinforce good student behaviors. The third intent is even more important. It is to teach the student to assume a major share of the responsibility for creating a school environment that *does* elicit and reinforce good student behaviors.

Interventions that focus on teaching students to play the school game require substantive changes in the roles of the teacher or other resource personnel. The special teacher has taken on a variety of roles, such as crisis manager for the school, aide to the regular teacher(s), teacher, counselor and to a great extent, "keeper" for the student. Much of the intervention now carried out by special teachers is actually the responsibility of the students themselves, or of others. It is also logical that interventions that must be carried out over and over signal the need for prevention. If many students need help with learning to ask for

Figure 1

Brief Definition of Survival Skills

From J. A. Cobb, *Survival Skills and First Grade Academic Achievement. Report #1.* Eugene, Oregon: Center at Oregon for Research in the Behavioral Education of the Handicapped, 1970, p. 13.

Appropriate

Approval: used whenever a person gives clear gestural, verbal or physical approval to another individual.

Attention: pupil is doing what is appropriate in academic situation. . .used only when work-oriented categories are not applicable.

Compliance: pupil does what teacher requests.

Initiation to Teacher: pupil indicates to teacher he wants some assistance in academic work.

Talk to Peer Positive: pupil talks to another student about academic material.

Talk to Teacher Positive: pupil talks to teacher about academic material.

Volunteering: pupil raises hand in response to teacher's question.

Inappropriate

Inappropriate Locale: used when not in his appropriate place.

Look Around: pupil is looking around the room, out the window, staring into space.

Non-compliance: pupil does not do what is requested by the teacher.

Not-attending: pupil is not attending to the assignment and no other category is appropriate.

Play: pupil is playing with another pupil while the teacher is presenting material to the class.

Self-Stimulation: pupil stimulates himself (e.g., scratches, rubs pencil on desk, feels material in his clothing) to such an extent that he is not paying attention to the assignment.

Talk to Peer Negative: pupil talks to peer about non-academic material.

Talk to Teacher Negative: pupil talks to teacher about non-academic material.

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appropriate assistance, it might be reasonable to develop instruction in this area. The special teacher can be a catalyst in developing such instructional components.

Except for those of pure chance, games by definition involve the deliberate use of strategies to gain an advantage. A game-playing analogue for classroom survival skills conjures up the obvious term, manipulation. The very idea is distasteful to most of us because it means involvement in dilemmas about the control of human behavior. This does not mean that "playing the school game" is any less valid as an analogue for the kind of instruction some students need. It does mean that any consideration of the use of such interventions should also include serious thought and attention to the ethical and moral issues involved.

In summary, behavior disordered students often have severe and persistent learning problems as well as trouble understanding the subtle interactions that may be termed "playing the school game." Schools rarely teach any students the skills needed for school success, and teachers of behaviorally disordered youth often spend a disproportionate amount of time and effort helping students survive in school. These efforts are usually considered as extras, but they should become a legitimate role for the teacher. On the other hand, much of the teacher's work in this regard could, or should, be made the responsibility of the students or of other personnel when they have been helped to learn to assume such responsibility. There are interventions available that will help both students and teachers in terms of learning and supporting good student behaviors. These interventions require not only a change in the roles of teachers and students, but also increased attention to the moral and ethical dilemmas involved in teaching "game playing" behaviors.

The following section deals briefly with some of the theory and pragmatic rationale for considering good-student behaviors as a potential curriculum component.

Research and Theory

Nearly any information that relates to schools and to social systems would have application to instruction in good-student behaviors. However, the four major topics in this section deal with attributions and perceptions, for both students and teachers; the notion of dependence; study skills and strategies; and renewed interest in the direct instruction of social skills.

Attributions and Perceptions

"Attribution theory" deals with why people believe particular outcomes occur. For example, one student may attribute disruptive behavior to forgetting to take medication, while another attributes the same behavior to peers, and the teacher attributes it to lack of standards at home.

Shaver (1975) noted that the interpersonal and social consequences of attribution are serious in our daily lives. The consequences are particularly important for students with learning problems. Graubard's work with the school behavior of delinquents was a pioneering effort to deal with attribution. He and his colleagues devised specific strategies that students could learn in school "even if the teacher did not like them" (Minuchin, Chamberlain and Graubard, 1967, p. 561). The students in this case habitually expressed their attribution patterns by judging that their successes and problems depended on whether or not the teacher liked them, rather than whether or not they worked appropriately in the classroom.

The strategies devised at that time were later extended to teaching students how to elicit and verbally reward the positive instructional interactions of their teachers. In this case it was probable that the teachers of these students were being taught to believe that they were responsible for the "good-student behavior" of their students. Students can assume some responsibility for shaping the attributions of others.

O'Leary and Drabman (1970) suggest that when students attribute improvement to the setting in which they are learning to find success, any gains made are likely to be lost outside that setting. The same reasoning applies to drugs or to a special teacher. Students may not see themselves as responsible for their increased competence, and may actually stop improving. O'Leary and Drabman suggest that special attention should be given to attribution in the course of generalization from special settings.

Attribution involves perceptions that may be either valid or faulty. Quite often student perceptions of how teachers behave or feel are quite valid, but the students are led to believe they are wrong. Where there is a choice to be made about believing or not believing a student's attribution of problems to a punitive teacher who does not want that student to be successful, it may be professionally simpler to believe that the student's perceptions are faulty. Yet, failing to come to terms with "reality" means that the student will not have an opportunity to receive needed assistance in dealing with teachers who may not like him or her. It is unrealistic to expect that every teacher will like every student, or that every student will like every teacher. Preparation for life involves learning to work with people who may not like us as well as with people not especially pleasing to us.

Teachers' perceptions and attributions have been found to be important factors in their willingness to help students experiencing problems in school. Rohrkemper and Brophy (1983) reported the results of teachers' reactions to 24 vignettes about students with 12 different patterns of problematic behaviors in the classroom. Seventeen of the vignettes involved situations related to academic work habits. Teachers expressed more willingness to help students who were not perceived as willfully thwarting the academic program. Whether or not the students were actually problematic is in many ways beside the point. It is perceptions that become important in determining willingness to help.

Dependence

In addition to factors of attribution, the phenomenon of "learned helplessness" is involved in teaching good-student behaviors. Students who receive a great deal of assistance with their school work may become dependent on that assistance. Some seem unable to make a mark on a page without checking with a tutor, teacher or aide. Furthermore, teachers may become troubleshooters for students—selecting teachers for them, arranging their schedules and smoothing conflicts with peers or school personnel. Expectations for constructive independence or responsibility are not communicated. In these circumstances, students may receive the equivalent of respite care, unbothered by and not learning to cope with the normal demands of daily living. Some students resist learning the skills that would remove them from such a safe environment. This means that students may not be willing participants in well-intentioned efforts to increase their independence. There is also an ethical question of fairness to the student in creating a caretaking position that will not be continued when the student leaves school or the program.

Study Skills

A growing interest in teaching behavior disordered students how to study has developed in the past few years. Fortunately, there is a great deal of research and methodology from which to draw. However, it is only rarely that good study behaviors taught in the special program can be used in the regular program. Baer (1980) notes that teaching students any such strategies must be followed up to be sure that they work in the environment where they will be used, or else they will be extinguished.

In a different arena, and at an earlier time, Bloom and Broder (1950) described a special program at the University of Chicago. It was designed to teach bright "underachieving" students how to use a problem-solving approach to their studies. The extensive checklist of difficulties observed in the study habits of those students includes a large component relating to attitudes and attributions. Bloom and Broder were struck by the apparent fact that such bright students still needed instruction in how to study.

More recently, academic strategy training and cognitive behavior modification have been reported as necessary and effective in improving the academic achievement of learning disabled students (Kneedler and Hallahan, 1983). The basic strategies involve teaching overt thinking procedures as routines. Training in social skills was also part of the special instruction for learning disabled students so they could learn to initiate appropriate social interactions with teachers and peers.

In regular education, there is increasing interest in study skills instruction. For example, The National Association of Teachers of Mathematics and the National Association of Secondary School Principals have collaborated in producing instructional materials to teach study skills in mathematics (Tobin, 1980).

Colleges and some high schools are initiating study skills programs. Barnstorf (1977) of the University of Minnesota-Duluth, continues to imbed strategies for playing the school game with more direct work in areas like time management and notetaking.

Social Skills Training

The fourth area relevant to teaching students to play the school game is that of social skills training. The topic has become more prominent in behavior disorders programs with the recognition that students who engage in inappropriate behavior should not be admonished so much as taught appropriate behaviors. The technology and content of such programs is available at all age levels. *Teaching Social Behavior to Young Children* (Sheppard, Shank and Wilson, 1973) describes a structured framework to use in the natural environment. Many of the behaviors they address are important for school success as defined earlier by Cobb.

Sherry, Franzen, Buch, Christopherson, Dawson and Mosheim (1976) describe a program to teach school social skills as well as academic strategies to middle school students in special programs. Their work was self-developed because of the recurring need to address these problems in their classrooms, and because of the scarcity of such materials for the classroom teacher.

A more direct instructional approach designed especially for behavior disordered youth is found in the work of Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gershaw and Klein (1980). Their behaviorally oriented materials provide scripts, organizational suggestions and methodologies for teaching the skills needed for common social interactions, such as "dealing with contradictory messages."

Although the strands noted above have not led directly to a means of teaching students to become constructively independent, they serve as base material from which future research and practice may be drawn. When taken together, they suggest that students can learn to differentiate between when their problems and successes are due to their own efforts and when they are not. Students can learn a wide array of study strategies and social skills that will enable them to be successful in the school setting. And students can become more responsible for their own behavior and for influencing how others perceive them. Although the focus is on the school setting, the same assumptions, goals and methodologies can be applied to home and community settings as well.

The next sections suggest some of the ways that program components for learning to play the school game can be developed, beginning with assessment of the student and of the school environment.

Assessment

Assessment of student competencies must take into account not only skills, but attitudes and attributions as well. The school may also be thought of as having competencies, in its ability to build, reinforce and maintain appropriate study and independent learning behaviors in students. It also has

attitudes and attributions, sometimes referred to as the "school climate."

This section deals with the rationale for going beyond a match/mismatch model of student-to-classroom or student-to-school. It also provides suggestions for looking at assessment; for finding out about attitudes, perceptions and hidden expectations; for using time-on-task in a broader way to look more carefully at the circumstances of the task; for using a match/mismatch checklist; and for analyzing assignment products. It concludes with comments on more detailed individual analysis.

The Need for an Overmatch Model

The concept of incremental validity (Anastasi, 1982) suggests that information should be collected only if it tells you what you didn't already know, and if it helps you make a better decision than you could have made without it. Assessment requires careful preplanning to be sure that only the right amount of relevant information is collected.

Basically, the information-economical model of choice in classroom assessment is one of match/mismatch. It seems logical that we are trying to close the gap between classroom expectations and student behavior. However, for interventions designed to teach students lasting skills in playing the school game, or in becoming good students, we must often "overmatch" the expectations of the classroom. Many fine resources are available for the match/mismatch model, notably Kerr and Nelson's *Strategies for Managing Behavior Problems in the Classroom* (1983). The overmatch model is more difficult.

It is highly probable that the classroom environment does not provide many opportunities for students to practice good-student behaviors they need to ensure that learning occurs once the game has been played. We should not lose sight of the fact that game-playing is not an end in itself, but a means by which students may be kept in an environment that has the potential for helping them learn constructive behavior and academic content. For example, it is relatively easy to teach a student to fill in the blanks of a specific question sheet. If the material is inconsequential busywork or the assignment is unrelated to future tests the teacher may give, then the student must in a sense overmatch the daily expectations of the classroom. The student must be taught to do busywork as a "teacher pleasing behavior" (Brown, 1969) and further taught to find a way to learn any important content crowded out by busywork, whether it is for test-taking or merely because it is something the student should know.

Places to Begin Assessment

The people who conduct assessment must first consider all that *could* be assessed, and select the general areas, the tools and the questions that seem relevant to the students of interest. In general, assessment should involve discussion with the student and the student's teacher(s). It is time well spent, for it provides leads to data collection. Further, the assessment process alone may be enough to constitute "intervention."

It is also possible to use the report card as an initial tool for deciding what to concentrate on in assessment. The report card is the major indicator that students need assistance. Generally, given two students with an equally marginal academic record, and given that one has massive marks on the study skills or work habits side of the report card and the other does not, it is likely that the "good work habit" student will pass, and the "poor work habit" student will not. That report card area can be used to start discussion with students, teachers and parents.

Attitudes, Perceptions and Expectations

Student attitudes, perceptions and attributions can be uncovered primarily through observation and talking with the student. Formal devices may also be used, but they are primarily designed to get students into discussion. Some of these are found in Bragstad and Stumpf's *A Guidebook for Teaching Study Skills and Motivation* (1982). A Q-sort format can be used with younger and older students (Brown, 1984). It is also possible to use norm-referenced measures such as the *Estes Attitude Scales: Measures of Attitudes toward School Subjects* (Estes, Richards and Roettger, 1981). It is not the scale that is important, but the discussion with the student about why certain agreements and disagreements were marked.

The attitudes and attributes of teachers can be discovered through discussion about a student's work habits and attitudes. Much of the subtlety of the teacher's attitudes can be found by analyzing the assignments given. Examples are described in the discussion of product analysis.

Students themselves are enlisted in finding out about the implicit expectations of the classroom. Eventually, they must learn that it is normal for different teachers to have different expectations. Some teachers want you to raise your hand before speaking, while others don't care. Some teachers want papers

typed, and others do not. While some teachers want students to work together, others will punish such behavior. In any case, students must learn to identify the "teacher-pleasing behaviors" in a specific classroom. Because of the connotation of the term, these behaviors may better be called, "behaviors that are idiosyncratic to the particular classroom or teacher." Students may be taught to differentiate expectations merely by training them in observation, and sending them to several different classrooms to observe and collect data or take notes. Once they understand what to look for, they can apply the idea to their own situations or to situations they will be encountering.

Broader Use of Time-on-Task

Time-on-task information may also be collected, whether for an individual or a group. For group or classroom assessment, the Playcheck (Planned Activity Check) of Risley (1971) is helpful. The steps involved in Playcheck are:

1. The observer scientifically defines the behavior (planned activity) he or she wishes to record in a group of children.
2. At given intervals (e.g., each 10 minutes) the observer counts as quickly as possible how many individuals are engaged in the behavior, recording the total.
3. The observer then counts and records as quickly as possible how many individuals are present in the area of the activity.
4. The number of pupils present is then divided into the number of pupils engaged in the behavior. By multiplying the results by 100, the observer finds the percent engaged in the behavior at that particular time (p. 4).

Where time-on-task data is collected for individuals, it is important to use a system that tells not only the proportion of time the student is on and off task, but what the student does when off task, and what the working pattern of the student is. This is using one's own shorthand to write an observational record of what the student does in a concentrated period of time when he or she is supposed to be engaged in independent work activity.

Match/Mismatch Checklist

Match/mismatch checklists are designed to find out how discrepant a student's behavior is from the expectations of the environment, in this case the school or the classroom. The checklist expanded by Brown (1984) may be used partially or in its entirety. It may be used to determine perceptions when self-reports of teachers and students are used, or to record actual expectations and behaviors if direct observations are used (*Figure 2*).

This instrument can be useful not only in assessing the current environment and behavior, but it is also used in transition programming from one school environment to another. For example, students who were going from an elementary to a middle school spent several weeks in January at the middle school. They drew maps; took slide pictures; recorded interviews with sixth graders, teachers and other personnel; collected work samples, assignments and textbooks; and conducted observations using the match/mismatch checklist as a structure. Although the IEP for these students showed a goal of raising their reading levels from 10 to 11 in "Lyons and Carnahan," it became apparent in January that other behaviors might be more important. For the remainder of the year the fifth grade program was modified to prepare the students for an easier transition to a difficult school.

Although some of the behaviors on the checklist seem to have little to do with good-student behavior, the teacher should be alert to their possible influence. For example, how the student left a classroom and behaved in the hall greatly prejudiced a nearby teacher against having that student in her room. In another case, the teacher got tired of explaining how to make up missed work, and refused to allow makeups.

Product or Assignment Analysis

One of the most fruitful areas for determining overt and covert expectations and the ability of the student to deal with the expectations lies in analyzing the written products that make up many of the school assignments. Whether first-grade seatwork or high school homework, assignments that have been completed and marked give an excellent picture of the quality of the educational program in a classroom. An analytic checklist adapted from Brown (1984) is described below.

Product analysis can be done away from the classroom by the teacher alone. It is best done in conjunction with observation in the classroom, with the involvement of the student. The questions and products can also be used as the basis for teacher interviews, but a word of caution is necessary.

continued on p. 140 (after Figure 2)

Figure 2

Behavioral Checklist for Determining Match of Student to Class or School

Students can "make it" in schools or classes where their behavior or performance matches the expectations of the teacher or leaders. However, where there are serious mismatches between school expectation and student behavior, several logical possibilities follow:

___ 1. **Some school, classroom or teacher expectations can be changed.**
The rules, curriculum or classroom expectations can be examined to determine which are most critical to the purposes of the class. Some changes might even be made on a trial basis for further evaluation.

___ 2. **Some student behaviors can be changed.**
Whether from motivational, skill development or information level problems, someone(s) must be charged with *teaching* and evaluating the specific deficit areas.

___ 3. **The school or classrooms may simply be too problematic for the student.**
Where no changes are possible, there is a real question about the appropriateness of the student/school-class match. If other values are involved in keeping the student in a clearly inappropriate situation, these values or policies should be noted.

___ 4. **Supportive services can be employed to reduce the mismatch.**
For example, a parallel alternative curriculum could be used, additional A-V materials supplied, peer tutoring employed, extended skill practice arranged or materials pre-viewing used.

___ 5. _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Various instruments or methods can be used to determine the extent of student-program matches. The example following has several advantages:

1. Initial categories and behaviors are suggested, but they are not exhaustive. All categories may be modified to suit local needs. This checklist primes the pump.
2. Not every behavior deserves or can get local attention. A ranking or sorting of behaviors may be derived from coding the behaviors noted.
3. Numerical values may or may not be assigned. If a data base is needed, then the descriptive statistics can serve for program and/or student development and evaluation.
4. Both positive and negative factors may be recorded.
5. Specific behaviors are noted, thus leading to instructional programming.
6. Group and/or individual summaries can be derived from the data.

Figure 2, cont.

Behavioral Checklist for Determining Match of Student/Class-School

(Sample adapted from Dawson, McLeod and Mathews, 1976)

Purpose: The purpose of this checklist is to determine the kind of match that exists—or does not exist—between the abilities and behaviors of a student and the requirements of a specific classroom, teacher or school.

Directions:

___ 1. Please glance over the categories and behaviors that are suggested. Note that there is room to add behaviors you believe are more important for your specific class or program. There is also room at the end to comment further and summarize information. Modify the sheet before you begin to code the behaviors and student abilities or performance.

___ 2. In the "Teacher Code" column, use the appropriate number to indicate how important the particular behavior is to success in your class or program. You might wish to consider the behavior in terms of students who have been very successful in your class. Rate each behavior to correspond to one of these four categories:

4 = Essential to success
3 = Important for success
2 = Helpful for success
1 = Not required for success.

___ 3. Either (a) or (b):
(a) for all behaviors . . .
(b) For all behaviors coded as 3 or 4 . . .
. . . rate the student under consideration. Use the following code for the column marked as "Student Code":

4 = Meets standards adequately
3 = Somewhat within class range
2 = Has done or shown, but is inconsistent
1 = Has never shown this behavior

___ 4. Subtract the code number in the "Student Code" column from the code number in the "Teacher Code" column. Write this remainder in the "Diff" (for "Difference") column.

___ 5. If the remainder in the "Diff" column is a +1, +2 or +3, then put a checkmark (✓) in the " ✓ if Sign" (Check if Significant) column.

___ 6. Further comment may be made in the space provided, or at the end of the questionnaire/checklist.

___ 7. If desired or needed, summarize the data appropriately; devise a program plan; verify the information given; expand the information given through personal interviews; discuss the information with the student or other relevant people; or use the data in pre-post program evaluation.

___ 8. Suggested formats for data summaries are provided as an appendix to the checklist sample.

Figure 2, cont.

	Teacher Code	Student Code	Diff	if Sign	Comment
A. Schedule Related Behaviors:					
1. Attends regularly					
2. Attends on time					
3. Knows what to do when a. late					
b. absent					
4. _____					
B. Material/Tool Related Behaviors:					
1. Has working pencil/pen					
2. Has notebook					
3. Has book(s)					
4. Has paper suitable for tasks					
5. Has miscellaneous materials related to the day's tasks					
6. Knows where to a. find materials/tools					
b. put materials/tools away after use					
7. Uses materials/tools with proper a. care					
b. skill					
c. safety					
8. _____					
C. Group Work Behaviors:					
1. Works individually/independently					
2. Works with one other person					
3. Works in groups of a. less than 5					
b. less than 10					
c. 10 or more					

Figure 2, cont.

	Teacher Code	Student Code	Diff	if Sign	Comment
4. Appropriate interactions with peers in classroom					
5. Reacts to peer provokes appropriately when they are a. physical					
b. verbal					
6. Participates appropriately in group discussions					
7. Reads material in front of group					
8. Takes on share of group project					
9. _____					
D. Behaviors Related to Presence in Class:					
1. Responds to bell by being in classroom and attending to teacher/task					
2. Enters room appropriately					
3. Sits at own desk or stays at work station					
4. Raises hand or gets attention appropriately					
5. Uses free or unstructured time well					
6. Has appropriate voice level					
7. Understands classroom "rules"					
8. Conforms to most classroom rules					
9. Dresses reasonably for school/class					
10. Is reasonably groomed/clean					
11. Reacts appropriately to teacher directives					
12. Reacts appropriately to teacher/peer statements					
13. Leaves room appropriately a. when directed					
b. at end of class					
14. Volunteers help to others					

Figure 2, cont.

	Teacher Code	Student Code	Diff	if Sign	Comment
E. Assignment/Project Related Behaviors					
1. Knows nature of assignment/project requirements a. content					
b. format					
2. Clarifies/verifies assignment or project requirements a. Asks appropriate questions					
b. writes notes about assignments					
3. Understands rationale for assignment					
4. Knows how to do the assignment a. content					
b. mechanics					
c. use of appropriate resources					
5. Starts assignment within reasonable time limits					
6. Does assignment "neatly"					
7. Verifies or checks work before handing in as completed a. knows how					
b. does					
8. Works at reasonable pace					
9. Accepts constructive feedback a. understands					
b. has good attitude toward					
c. uses					
10. Hands in completed work/project					
11. Revises product/assignment if needed a. knows how					
b. completes revision					

Figure 2, cont.

	Teacher Code	Student Code	Diff	if Sign	Comment
12. Able to deal with grades received					
a. has appropriate attitude toward					
b. knows procedure for changing					
c. uses appropriate change procedures					
13. Is responsible for work missed					
a. knows how to find out what to do					
b. makes up work					
14. Seeks extra-credit assignments					
15. _____					
F. Behaviors Related to Test-Taking					
1. Studies content on a daily basis with tests in mind					
a. knows appropriate study methods					
b. uses appropriate study methods					
2. Shows appropriate attitude toward tests					
3. Understands various test formats					
a. multiple choice					
b. true/false					
c. short answer					
d. fill in blanks					
e. matching					
f. essay					
g. identifyng parts of diagrams					
4. Can study according to formats					
a. multiple choice					
b. true/false					
c. fill in blanks					
d. short answer					
e. matching					
f. essay					
g. identifying parts of diagrams					

Figure 2, cont.

	Teacher Code	Student Code	Diff	if Sign	Comment
5. Knows how to prepare for tests a. with appropriate review					
b. with adequate physical energy					
c. with good planning of time use					
6. Can use alternatives to written tests a. knows alternatives available					
b. makes arrangements for alternative					
7. Is responsible for missed tests a. knows how to find out what to do					
b. makes up test					
8. Able to deal with grades received a. has appropriate attitude toward					
b. knows procedure for changing					
c. uses appropriate change procedures					
9. Uses returned tests as feedback a. for anticipating future formats					
b. for anticipating future content					
c. for anticipating future study needs					
10. Asks for help appropriately					
11. _____					
G. Behaviors Related to Obtaining Content					
1. Able to attend to class activity for appropriate length of time					
2. Maintains attention toward teacher or leader-directed activity					
3. Listens to lectures/discussions					
4. Able to copy notes or other information a. from board					
b. from overhead					
c. from books					
d. from misc. sources					

Figure 2, cont.

	Teacher Code	Student Code	Diff	if Sign	Comment
5. Uses IMC resources appropriately					
a. understands range of resources					
b. uses appropriate resources					
6. Picks up information through					
a. reading/studying independently					
b. observation of demonstrations or A-V materials					
c. "doing"—projects/products					
d. listening to teacher/leader					
e. discussion					
7. Has experience with content area					
a. from reading/studying					
b. from hands-on or first-hand experience					
8. Maintains interest in class/topics					
9. Persists in trying to learn skill/content					
10. Tries to use or apply content outside of classroom situation					
11. _____					
H. Behaviors Related to Self-Expression					
1. Has adequate writing skills					
a. handwriting					
b. typing					
c. spelling					
d. grammar					
e. vocabulary					
f. uses appropriate formats					
g. organizes material appropriately					
2. Has adequate speaking skills					
a. grammar					
b. content vocabulary					
c. organizes material appropriately					

Figure 2, cont.

	Teacher Code	Student Code	Diff	if Sign	Comment
3. Has adequate performing/demonstration skills a. performs relevant aspects of procedure					
b. uses performance as a way to show what is known					
4. _____					
I. Study Related Behaviors					
1. Knows how to use/plan time wisely a. understands how to plan					
b. uses time management plans					
2. Uses appropriate notetaking skills a. knows appropriate formats					
b. takes notes					
c. reorganizes notes for various study purposes					
d. maintains note files					
3. Keeps adequate records of study, e.g., notebook					
4. Relates new to old information					
5. Knows study routines, e.g., SQ3R a. understands how to use					
b. uses consistently					
6. _____					
J. Building Related Behaviors					
1. Walks in halls					
2. Appropriate noise level in halls					
3. Has pass when in halls a. knows how to obtain pass					
b. shows pass as required					
4. Does not pear or shout into classrooms or offices					
5. Moves from one room to another within reasonable time limits					

Figure 2, cont.

	Teacher Code	Student Code	Diff	if Sign	Comment
6. Responds appropriately to adult-initiated interactions					
7. Talk appropriately to building personnel					
8. Stays in appropriate school areas					
9. Able to sit quietly in office area					
10. Interacts appropriately with peers while in non-classroom areas					
a. verbally					
b. physically					
11. Uses behaviors appropriate to area(s)					
12. Knows how to use appropriate resource personnel in the school					
13. Leaves building within reasonable time limit					
a. when instructed					
b. when bell rings					
14. _____					
K. Behaviors Related to Participation in Extracurricular Activities					
1. Knows range of extracurricular activities					
2. Shows interest in some extracurricular participation					
3. Participates in extracurricular activities					
4. _____					

Behaviors that are not related to success in the classroom, but cause some concern on behalf of the student:

Figure 2, cont.

Match-Mismatch Checklist: Worksheet for Summary and Plan

Rank	Major Mismatch Concerns	Suggested Plan for Follow-Up

Use of Positive M[illegible]ches

continued from p. 128

Teachers who conduct interviews about any seatwork/homework, or who ask to collect permanent products, may find that the classroom teacher is extremely suspicious and defensive because the material is so close to the heart of instructional evaluation. It's usually necessary to explain that you are trying to find out about the kind of study needed in the classroom so that skills can be taught to a student who is experiencing or presenting problems. This is only partially true, no matter how we try to disguise it. Such partial truths are to some extent an example of game-playing on the part of the person doing the assessment. It somehow seems better, though, than saying that you want to find out how reasonable, substantial, fair or important the assignments given may be, and whether or not the teacher is applying appropriate instructional and classroom management techniques.

The following cue questions are helpful in developing clinical judgment in looking at finished and marked assignments in or from the classroom.

1. **What is the apparent source of the task?** There are three usual sources of classroom assignments. Ideally, the assignment is related to the instructional situation. This means that the teacher or the material has provided instruction before, during or after the product was assigned. In such cases, the assignment was likely to have been thoughtfully designed to be helpful to the student.

   Sometimes tasks are routinely provided in a commercial or district sequence. This usually means that the task is not likely to be related to specific instruction, and has a questionable relationship to the obstensible goal of the assignment. For example, students may spend a great deal of time filling out page 22 about vowel diagraphs, when the task is probably not going to help their reading competence.

   At other times tasks are general in nature, and are unrelated to any instruction or sequence. Teachers may give a paper to the students to complete "for fun," or just to keep the students occupied. Many commercial supplemental materials are of this nature.
2. **What is the apparent purpose of the task?** Sometimes assignments are given to determine mastery or non-mastery of the material. This would be a test or a test-like situation, and a good sign *if* the test is related to instruction. Pre-tests are also indicative that instruction might be planned on student needs or levels of competence.

   Sometimes the assignment is given for "practice." That word is usually a euphemism for busywork. When no feedback is provided from the assignment, this is sure to be the case. Unfortunately, other instructional opportunities are lost when too much time is spent on busywork. When feedback is given when the assignment has been completed, the practice intent was probably true.
3. **What is the format of the task?** The format involves both content items and non-content requirements. Non-content requirements include things like putting your name and date in a certain place, being neat and clean, using a certain size and slant of writing, or having problems in a certain alignment.
4. **How did or might the student learn the task format?** In many cases the format, both of content and non-content items, must be inferred by the student. Good teachers make sure that the student has a model of the format, and see that the format is rewarded when produced.
5. **What are the directions for the assignment?** Of interest here is the content of the directions — which may be too complex — and also the source of the directions. If they were given orally by the teacher, was the classroom in chaos at the time (when the bell rang)? Could the student hear? Was he or she paying attention at the time? Could the student read and understand the directions? Lack of reading and understanding the directions is one of the common causes of problems with seatwork (Rush, 1970). We would also want to know if the student is merely to "understand" the directions from previous assignments—that were perhaps never understood in the first place.
6. **What are the language requirements?** Both form and content are important here, in reading, writing, speaking and listening. While attention is usually concentrated on reading and writing, the classroom "conversation" of the student may be equally important. For example, a student who does not seem to be paying attention may need to learn to ask open-ended questions such as, "That was a good point! Could someone please explain more about it?" This type of question does not require a great deal of content, but gives the impression of great interest in the topic—just like cocktail party talk!

7. **What is the teacher's attitude toward assistance with the task or assignment?** This is one of the most critical areas of analysis, for it gives a clear picture of the teacher's attitude toward learning and the purpose of schooling. Many teachers believe that a student who receives assistance is cheating. For example, one student who learned to have someone check his spelling before handing in an English paper received an "F" from the teacher. The teacher knew that he couldn't spell well, and if the spelling was correct, the student must have "cheated," i.e., had some assistance.
8. **What was the nature and source of instructional preparation managed by the teacher?** If not directly instructed, how/when/where was the student to have learned the content?
9. **What was the time allotted for preparation?** As we know, if too much time is allotted for preparation, then students have opportunities to misbehave or daydream. If not enough time is allotted, then the student is likely to receive a poor grade—not for content, but for work that is unfinished. Time-on-task data is helpful in finding out how the student handles the time allotment. Eventually, we also need to know how the student plans for the efficient use of study time.
10. **What is the number of units or items to be completed?** The student must learn to scan assignments to find out the scope of the assignment to plan the use of study time. Further, the student needs to learn that a poor grade doesn't mean that he or she doesn't know the content. The teacher usually "grades" on the basis of the relationship of units-correct to units-completed to units-expected. In a 50 problem page of math items, the student who finishes 25 items, 24 of which are correct, will get the same "F" as the student who finishes all 50 items and gets 24 correct. There are probably qualitative differences between the students in math, and the picture is misleading, both to observers and to the student.
11. **How does the teacher evaluate work?** This factor is very difficult. Evaluation is often synonymous with marking. When everyone is playing the usual school game, it means that everyone does their part, i.e., the teacher usually gives the assignment; the student does the assignment and turns it in; the teacher evaluates it, marks and records a grade, and gives the assignment back to the student; the student gets rid of the assignment; and the teacher gives a new assignment.

    It takes an incredible change in the unwritten rules to reach the point where classroom daily assignments will be used for learning. This would mean that teachers *and* students would have to differentiate *learning* assignments from *testing* assignments. If the assignment is truly a learning experience, then it will not be treated as a daily test. In the first grade, the red measle marks of mistakes will vanish as the teacher uses errors diagnostically and lets the student correct the work. The "grade," of course, would not be based on the first attempt, but on the corrected paper.
12. **What feedback is given to students?** We are interested here in the form, the content and the recording of feedback by the teacher and student. The use of feedback from assignments is one of the best ways to study for tests. The practice of learning to use feedback from assignments can be started in the first grade, even if they don't relate to tests, but to product revision.
13. **What kind of follow-up is provided to the assignment?** Follow-up should be communicated back to the student, so that he or she is rewarded not only for the correctness of the assignment, but also for engaging in good study habits.

Special teachers are used to examining the assignments that come to students in terms of their level of difficulty, and for the tutoring effort needed to help the student complete the assignment. The suggestions made above represent some of the additional information that can be gleaned from these assignments.

The Individual Student

More detailed analysis of student abilities may also be conducted in special skills such as notetaking, time management, test taking and verbal interaction. These analyses are often made outside the regular classroom. Many ideas for such assessment are found in books that deal with "study skills."

It is also important to find out if the student can do the work and doesn't, or if the student simply can't do the work. The principal techniques to make this discrimination are contingency management and stimulus control. Either the student can be rewarded for performance with a ton of M&M's, or *doing* the task can be made so intrinsically attractive that the student will want to do it. For example, a student may be told that if the first five examples are completed correctly, the rest need not be finished, or that only five examples of the student's choice need be done. On the other hand, the student may want to work on the task if a good friend can work with him or her, or if the "work" is disguised as a game.

It is also true that some students are excellent "game players," so that they are able to manipulate the system by removing themselves from any responsibility for constructive learning. In this case, the task is to use their skills for more constructive purposes. Some teachers make them coaches for students who don't know that a game is being played in school.

Intervention Description

There are certain things that teachers can do to teach, reward and maintain good-student behaviors, and there are certain things that students must learn to do. The first part of this section provides suggestions that are more relevant for the teacher's major responsibility, and the second part deals primarily with the student.

Interventions Under the Control of the Teacher

Arrangement of the Physical Environment. Quite often, students must wait for the teacher to get materials needed for class. It is possible to put materials in reach of students, and to role play and reward proper use of the materials. Single desks may be placed together for group study. Charts used by individuals can be reproduced for keeping in a notebook rather than as room decoration.

Clarifying Expectations and Realities. If the teacher can take a light approach to the whole topic, he or she can be honest with the students and explain what the teacher-pleasing behaviors are in that classroom. A check on the teacher's perceptions can be made periodically by having students discuss the topic in class—as it applies to that classroom. If some of the expectations are from habit only, then they might be changed.

One teacher decided that there was no real reason that students had to work alone all the time, and arranged for partnerships to be set up for work completion.

Selecting Materials that Promote Independence. Some materials must be completed totally under the teacher's direction, while others can be done more or less independently. Any materials that have self-corrective features, or for which self-correcting features can be adapted, are helpful.

At the secondary level, where outlining textbooks may be required, the teacher should assure that the text is outlineable. Some special teachers teach skills that the student cannot use simply because the materials are so poor. In this case, it might be necessary to teach students what to do when their strategies cannot be applied.

Arranging Assignments to Account for Various Elements. The teacher can modify assignments in many ways beyond the conventional "fewer problems." For example, seatwork or homework may have space provided for recording estimated and real time of the task. It may also provide for comments about the task.

The teacher may also wish to begin the concept of "revision" that is so popular in written expression. All products, no matter what the academic area, can be revised before being handed in for final grading.

Grading practices may be modified to include specific study skills as part of the criteria. For example, more than one point can be given for a correct sentence or problem, making it possible for the student to earn some points toward success and use task analysis skills.

Teachers may also learn to "grade" group or partnership efforts. When groups are used to complete seatwork, the groups should be changed often to be sure that groupings are not unfair to students.

Changing Organizational Patterns. Not every group needs to be an achievement group, as in reading. There are many other bases for grouping, e.g., friendship groups, interest groups or skill need groups. These can let students know that there are many ways to go about learning.

In addition to grouping, the teacher may also want to initiate peer tutoring or partner learning strategies. *Increasing Student Achievement through Peer Tutoring* (Pierce, Stahlbrand and Bryant-Armstrong, 1984) is a how-to-do-it book for teachers to use in conducting structured, behavioralized peer tutoring programs either in or out of the classroom.

It might also be possible to reorganize the classroom program for unit teaching in the elementary school, or for a core curriculum approach at the secondary level. Such a unified studies structure provides excellent opportunities for students to learn and practice constructive independence and group interdependence. It also provides the teacher with an opportunity to differentiate assignments for individuals.

Attend to Good Instructional Practice. Good instructional practices are designed to help students master content and use study skills. Nearly every textbook on methods or teacher education contains suggestions for instructional improvement. Nearly any book with J. Brophy as an author or a co-author will be helpful to the teacher.

Direct Instruction in Aspects of Independent Study. Test-taking, how to do homework and specific learning strategies can be taught in the classroom. These may be monitored during structured study time in the classroom. Time management, task analysis, etc. may also be taught directly in conjunction with the classroom program.

Notebook Requirement. The notebook is one requirement that can be very helpful to both student and teacher. It can verify student effort, verify teacher effort when students believe they have been unfairly treated, organize content for further study, as for tests, and can be used as a device for troubleshooting study problems of students. Even in first grade, students can begin to keep notebooks that are monitored by peers and the teacher. Some of the items that may be placed in notebooks include color charts, number charts, handwriting models, word lists, directions charts, records of time management, class notes, calendars with assignments and deadlines scheduled, test samples, handouts, class rosters, make-up procedures, classroom expectations, sources of assistance and homework or seatwork papers.

Assessment. Teachers can constantly assess the study behaviors of their students, how much responsibility they are taking, etc. They may also engage in self-assessment to determine areas in need of work. Sometimes these can be incorporated into teaching improvement plans in the school or district.

Interventions Under the Control of the Student

The methodologies for teaching independent study behaviors include role playing, cognitive behavior modification and behavior modification. Where models are needed, it is often good to use the student as his or her own model through the medium of film or video. Instant film is desirable simply for immediate feedback. Students may have picture series in their notebooks, showing and telling about *them* actively engaged in good student behaviors.

The content of learning to become more independent in the classroom includes skills and strategies such as those noted below.

Criteria of Acceptability. The student must know both what must be learned, and how it is to be shown. The "shown" includes homework, tests, notebook-keeping, demonstrations, interviews, seatwork and class discussion.

Task Analysis. Subtask ordering is necessary so the student can complete smaller pieces of a task. Further, in learning to ask for help appropriately, the student must identify the specific problematic part of the task. The student who says to the teacher, "I don't get it!" is going to make quite a different impression than the one who says, "I need help with the last part of this problem, Ms. Bradley. Do you have time to help me now, or when would it be convenient for you?"

Knowledge of the Product Format. The format of the product makes a difference in the type of study used. Millman and Pauk (1969) show some of the relationships between the type of task and the method of study. For example, the use of index cards for learning addition facts is often helpful when rote association must be made.

Aids to Memory. Although the teacher is not likely to reinforce this skill, students in real life must learn to use aids to memory, such as checklists of task steps, hand-held calculators and note cards. The more socially acceptable the prosthetic device, the better.

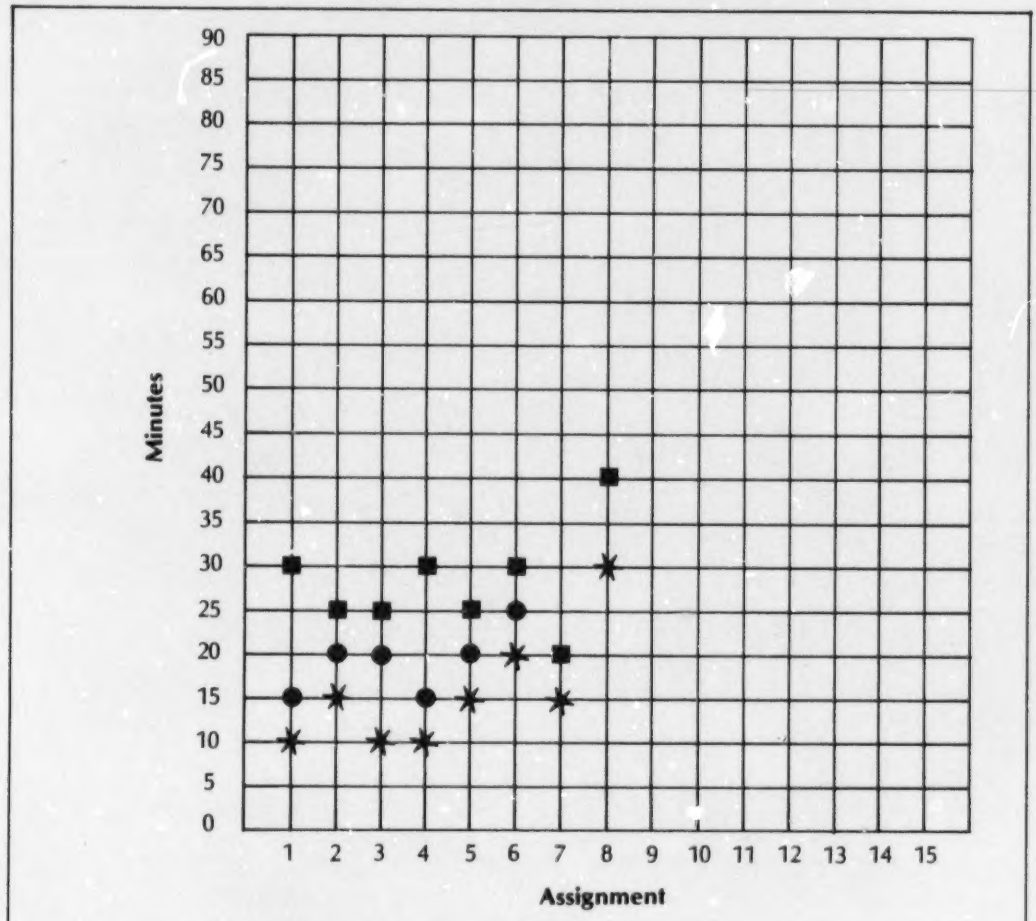
Checklists and reminders may be kept in the student's notebook, and checklist sheets may be included in seatwork or homework tasks.

Means of Checking or Verifying. Verifying the accuracy of one's work is a lifetime skill, as with income tax preparation. Yet, the idea of independence is often misconstrued as, "Do it by yourself!" Students often need someone to check to make sure that all goes well before turning in the final assignment. They may check for spelling, grammar, accuracy, etc. Some teachers have begun to use peer-checking of non-content factors such as format and perhaps spelling. If there is a problem with the factor, then the paper is returned to the peer checker.

Time Management. These skills are high priority for instruction, and once taught, they need extensive monitoring to maintain. Even for adults, time management is a problem. *Figure 3* shows a sample of a chart designed to get students to decrease the gap between estimated and real time for tasks.

Figure 3

Chart Sample for Time Graph



Visual display of Time Card records

✶ or green = optimistic time
■ or blue = pessimistic time
● or red = real time

V. Brown, undated b.

Physical Conditions. The student can take responsibility for finding the appropriate conditions for supporting his or her own study. Social skill training in resisting peer pressure is often involved here.

Self-Monitoring and Self-Reinforcement. Workman's *Teaching Behavioral Self-Control to Students* (1982) deals with both of these topics for academic and non-academic behaviors. In many cases, self-monitoring and self-reinforcement need not be delayed, but may be taught immediately.

Product Revision. This critical skill often needs the cooperation of the classroom teacher to set the habit. Rough-drafting of more than written language is a perfectly legitimate procedure to be used for important assignments.

Test-Taking Strategies. Feder's *The Complete Guide to Taking Tests* (1979) contains most of the material needed for this topic. Barnstorf's factors that influence failure in tests is a good guide for students and for teachers to use diagnostically (*Figure 4*).

"**Study Skills**". Traditional skills such as notetaking (D. Brown, 1977) or outlining can be taught with the content at hand. The reference notebook for young children is an early attempt to use appropriate skills, and handouts that have room for notes built in would be a way to help older students.

If it is at all possible, older students should be given their own textbooks for learning to "talk to the author" and for highlighting important information. Requiring that students keep textbooks clear of marks is educationally penny wise and pound foolish. Learning to make appropriate notes in books is one of the most useful study skills with lifelong value.

Being a "good student" requires more than academic competence. Survival skills in "playing the school game" are necessary from preschool through graduate school.

Implementation, Generalization and Maintenance

As teachers or other school personnel work with some of these concepts and suggestions, they will find that students and colleagues are not particularly happy with changing their routines. The most difficult part of these interventions is getting started. Something in the curriculum must go for something else to be added. Yet, it's trite but true that in terms of value, these skills are probably more important than much of the curriculum in classrooms today. Change is usually slow, but dramatic.

Changes in the school game should ideally be made at the beginning of some new period, such as the beginning of the school year or semester. Teachers can capitalize on the "unknown-ness" that goes with new situations.

Programs in study behaviors will find wide support among parents, who often verbalize the notion that their children know more than the school gives them credit for. In addition, parents are happy to know that their children are receiving instruction in important skills such as time management. Quite often, parents or guardians will be interested in extending the program to the home, where homework is sometimes a problem.

It may be that implementing a good-student behavior program is impossible in your situation. In that case, it is even more important to teach children to play the school game. It may be that the students will need to learn to modify the teacher's behavior, using behavior modification techniques. Such a program is especially appropriate for the disruptive student, for like the teacher who is learning to be a behavior modifier, the behavior of the modifier must be kept under incredible control. Many of the books designed for parent groups can be easily adapted for students to work through with an experienced adult. It is important to deal with both legal and moral aspects of behavior modification in any program initiated.

Where programs are set up, it is important to include good students who can interpret some of the expectations, and who can suggest their own modifications of study strategies. Partner learning programs may be used for this purpose.

The range of behaviors that promote independence in students has been merely tapped in this chapter. Those more experienced with this topic are teaching students to do their own assessments, i.e., to give themselves and each other a variety of tests. Especially with students who go from one setting to another, it is important that they not be left to the mercy of whatever evaluation skills and interpretations are handy in the setting. Students who learn about test construction and understand the results of several self-tests of their own abilities and aptitudes are in a much better position to participate effectively in any "treatment" program designed for them, and to give or withhold truly informed consent.

The special teacher who deals with teaching students to play the school game and to learn to be good students cannot possibly do all the work. Actually, the responsibility for such programs should reside in the regular classrooms where content is being taught. One of the best ways to get interest in using some of the strategies and skills is to model them yourself in some instructional situation. It may be that the special

Figure 4

Factors that Influence Failure

	Before the test	During the test	After the test
Course design; and/or Instructor	____test expectations unclear ____instructor presented ideas unclearly, examples: ____inadequate study guides ____textbook wasn't clear ____textbook, in-class material not related ____instructor not available or unwilling to answer questions ____study sessions not helpful ____other, specify	____poor physical conditions ____inadequate time allowed ____test questions poorly phrased ____test did not cover expected material ____test did not cover significant material ____test directions were unclear ____other, specify	____adequate feedback not provided ____not enough opportunity to go over test ____test scored improperly or incorrectly ____other, specify
Self	____used study time poorly ____didn't read text or mark adequately (or hand-outs) ____didn't review ____didn't attend 100% ____didn't participate in class ____didn't attend study sessions ____didn't take adequate notes ____didn't pay attention to class material ____didn't predict test questions ____negative attitude ____other pressures on my mind ____other, specify	____my test questions were not good predictors ____couldn't concentrate ____didn't follow directions ____felt tense ____felt fatigued ____didn't plan my time well ____other, specify	____felt disappointed, angry ____didn't pay attention to feedback ____didn't go over my test carefully to learn from my mistakes ____other

From Barnstorf, T. *Study Skills Guide*. Minneapolis: Burge Publishing Co., 1977.

teacher will need to set up demonstration sites for some of the skills to be shown. It's unlikely that anyone will become enough of a superteacher to put all of them to practice.

Independence behaviors cannot be taught in a scope and sequence fashion, for only the content becomes more complex. It seems necessary to consider a student's independence status and study or work habits from the earliest days of school. The behaviors should be directly addressed in the IEP of students being considered for special programs. In addition, students who are to move from one setting to another, as from residential or special class settings to more "normal" settings, will find that skills in psyching out the classroom and the teacher are critical to a successful transition. In any case, students who present or experience problems in these areas do not need admonition, but instruction. Application of some of the ideas presented in this chapter should be helpful in developing instructional components in independence training.

Appendix A

Sample Formats for Data from Match-Mismatch Checklist

Questions:

1. How does an individual student fare across teachers?
2. What is the range of differences in various classes?

Student _____

Behaviors

(List behaviors or code letters/numbers for behaviors used in the checklist.)
(Only significant behaviors might also be listed.)

Teacher #

1		2		3		4		5		6	
T / S	D	T / S	D	T / S	D	T / S	D	T / S	D	T / S	D

Interpretation

May examine mean or modal or extremes of teacher expectations; mean or modal or extremes of student behaviors; or significant difference scores.

Question:

1. What is the range of student match-mismatch in any particular classroom?

Teacher _____

Behaviors

May list all or only significant behaviors in this column.
Note Teacher Code

Student #

1	2	3	4	5	. . .
	Codes for Student Here				

Interpretation

Examine range.

Question:

1. What resources do we have to deal with significant problems of mismatch?

Behavior of Concern: _____
No more than two related behaviors (if there are any): _____

_____

In each case, consider resources immediately available + resources available *if* X, Y or Z were changed:

Money:

Space:

Time:

Personnel:

Materials and Supplies:

Curriculum Content:

Curriculum Methodology:

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